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UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

LEADER LEGITIMACY AND INFLUENCE IN
HIERARCHICAL GROUPS

by



DOLF RYKS

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a thesis entitled: "Leader Legitimacy and Influence in Hierarchical Groups", submitted by Dolf Ryks in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Abstract

The present study was designed to examine how a group leader is accepted by group members as legitimate in his role. Three independent variables (1) the method of selecting a leader, (2) his general expertise and competence, and (3) the opportunity for group members to become more influential in decision-making were examined in a simulated courtroom. Role relationships were structured so as to create differences between jurors (members) and the judge (leader) in power and influence. Members assessed the judge on two important aspects of legitimacy (1) the acceptance of him in his role of authority, and (2) the willingness of members to accept his assertions of influence.

It was found that in four dependent measures assessing the acceptance of the judge in his role of authority there was a significant main effect for qualifications ($p < .01$). If the judge had rated himself as well qualified, he was given a stronger endorsement than when he appeared lacking in qualifications. Furthermore, the judge was rated as being more attractive and jurors were better satisfied with his performance if he appeared to be well qualified than if he appeared lacking in qualifications ($p < .025$).

An interesting and significant relationship between the method of selecting the judge and his qualifications was observed. If the qualifications of the judge were low, jurors rated the method of selection as more fair if he was elected rather than appointed by the experimenter. However, there was no difference in the fairness of the different selection procedures if the judge was high in qualifications ($p < .01$).

Concerning the judge's influence, only the juror's confidence about the verdict was affected. It was found that jurors were more confident about the verdict if the judge appeared well qualified than if he appeared lacking in qualifications ($p < .05$).

An analysis of voters and nonvoters in the election condition demonstrated that voters were more likely to change their verdicts in agreement with the judge's verdict ($p < .05$) and rated him as more attractive than did nonvoters ($p < .05$). A correlational analysis revealed that jurors who had perceived the judge as more attractive were more susceptible to his influence ($p < .01$).

It was concluded that in the simulated courtroom, power and status differences clearly altered juror's perceptions of the judge. The judge's qualifications affected juror's perceptions of the judge as well as perceptions of their own role. Furthermore, it was suggested that the judge's legitimacy was determined more by his qualifications and expertise than whether or not the method of his selection appeared "democratic". Finally it was concluded that even the potential to participate was effective in producing greater satisfaction among the jurors and increased the favorableness of their evaluations of the task and the judge.

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Introduction

Prominent among the several elements involved in the leadership process are the nature of person who exerts influence, the needs and expectations of group members, and the degree of structure in the interaction situation. These elements may be interrelated in various ways in determining a leader's effectiveness to assist the group in achieving its goals.

Considerable research in the area of leadership has focused on how effectively a leader performs the functions of leadership once his position has been established (Fiedler, 1971). One way of considering leader effectiveness is to study how a leader is "validated" in his role by the group members. Secord and Backman (1964) refer to this process of validating the leader by the group members as the acceptance of the leader as legitimate in his role.

Research on the question of leader legitimacy has remained relatively unexplored (Hollander and Julian, 1968). Early attempts to identify leader characteristics underlying the acceptance of a leader's legitimacy have been limited by methodological inadequacies and inconsistent results. The purpose of the present research was to identify and extend those factors which could be considered as possible determinants of legitimacy.

There are several different aspects of leader legitimacy which could have been considered in the scope of this study. Only two, however, were included: the acceptance of a leader in his role as an authority, and the willingness to respond affirmatively to his assertions of influence. Thus it was assumed that the extent to which a

leader was favorably endorsed by the group members and exerted a disproportionate amount of influence would indicate the degree of legitimacy the leader was perceived to have in his role.

In framing this study, three variables were included as important determinants of a follower's acceptance of the leadership role and his susceptibility to leader influence. These were: (1) the method of selecting a leader; by election or appointment, (2) qualifications of the person chosen for the leadership role; either relatively well qualified or relatively unqualified, and (3) mobility in the group structure; either giving the subjects the potential opportunity to increase their participation in the decision-making process or not giving them this opportunity. In several studies it had been hypothesized that the source of the leader's authority, whether internal or external to the group, is crucial to an individual's acceptance of a leader (Hollander and Julian, 1970; Goldman and Fraas, 1965; Cohen and Bennis, 1961; Raven and French, 1958). Goldman and Fraas used four selection procedures to determine if group performance was related to the source of a leader's authority. These procedures were: (a) leader elected by a group vote; (b) leader selected by the experimenter, (c) leader selected according to ability to perform the group task; and (d) no leader appointed. The authors found that the groups which improved the most in performance were those in which the leader was elected or had been selected by the experimenter on the basis of his superior performance in pre-test trials. By contrast, if the leader was arbitrarily appointed or if the group had no leader, performance showed little improvement. The results indicated that group readily accepted an appointed leader if his choice seemed justified

by his previous performance on the task. Although Goldman and Fraas do not mention this possibility, it may be that the person chosen by the experimenter on the basis of his competence would also have emerged as the group's leader in an election procedure.

Raven and French (1958) also used an election procedure to determine if a member's participation in the selection procedure affected his perceptions of the leader's legitimacy. They hypothesized that if a member perceives his group as supporting the leader in his position, he will be more accepting of the leader's legitimate right to that position. Furthermore, they expected that if a group member perceived the leader as having a legitimate right to that position, he would perceive the leader as more attractive and also conform to his influence attempts. Raven and French, using an experimentally created work group which was hierarchically structured according to the member's roles, found that subjects accepted the leader's authority most if he had group support (elected by the group). However, if the leader had no group support (the leader was self-appointed), he was not given as strong an endorsement. To determine if the group members found an "elected" leader to be more attractive than the self-appointed leader, subjects were asked to rate how much they liked him. The difference between the support and no support conditions, although not statistically significant, was in the predicted direction. Similarly, the leader's influence which was tested by a subject's compliance to instructions telling him to slow down and do his work more carefully, yielded results which were in the predicted direction, but only significant at the .08 level of confidence. The results showed that the nonelected

supervisor also had considerable influence over the subject's behavior. Raven and French concluded that the occupation of a leadership position may in itself lend considerable legitimacy to the person who fulfills that role.

In another study examining the election procedure, Cohen and Bennis (1961) used Bavelas-Leavitt communication networks to determine if elected leaders were chosen to continue in this capacity more often than appointed leaders. In the experiment, half of the subjects were run in a wheel (central) network for 15 trials with an appointed leader and then given the opportunity to elect a new leader while the other half of the groups were not given this chance. During the test phase, all subjects were arranged in a circle (decentral) network in which measures were taken to determine whether its members maintained the previously elected leader to a greater extent than groups that had no such election opportunity. Since the results were significant and in the predicted direction, Cohen and Bennis concluded that involvement in the decision-making process increased the perceived legitimacy and influence of the leader.

Hollander and Julian (1970), in a series of three experiments, also studied the effects of increasing a leader's legitimacy using an election procedure. The authors, as in all previous experiments, hypothesized that an election procedure would give the leader greater legitimacy and influence than an appointment procedure. In one experiment, the authors asked subjects to rate the acceptability of a stimulus person who varied in competence, source of his authority, motivation with regard to the group members, and motivation

concerning the group's goals. The results failed, however, to show that elected leaders were perceived as more legitimate than appointed leaders. In a second experiment, using a task maximizing face-to-face contact under more naturalistic conditions, they found that the source of a leader's authority was related to the subject's willingness to admit to being influenced by the leader. However elected leaders were not perceived as more attractive, legitimate, or exerting more influence than appointed leaders.

The studies which have attempted to determine if elected leaders were perceived as more legitimate than appointed leaders have met with inconsistent findings. Although some research has indicated that elected leaders are ascribed more legitimacy than appointed leaders, other studies have failed to support that conclusion. In a review of only those studies which have affirmed a relationship between legitimacy and the method of selecting a leader it was found that the election of the leader may have been confounded with the competence of the person chosen as the leader. For example, in the Cohen and Bennis study (1961) no mention at all was made of leader competence. Since the election procedure allowed the subjects to choose the most competent individual, that person was probably retained in the test phase because of his demonstrated ability. But the experimenter in the antecedent wheel condition may well have appointed a person who by his performance did not appear to be the most competent person. Thus he was not chosen in the test phase to continue in this capacity because he was not perceived as the best person for the position. Either the experimenter would have had to

rig the elections so that the outcome was randomly determined or appoint the most competent person after the initial 15 trials in the wheel network. Only then could it be concluded that an election alone extended greater legitimacy to the leader than appointment.

Similarly, Raven and French did not have their subjects rate the perceived competence of the elected or self-appointed leaders. In the appointment condition, the leader introduced himself into the experiment as one of the group members who had simply asked the already elected leader to change positions with him in the work group. One would expect that a leader who was appointed by an experimenter would have greater credibility than the self-appointed leader in their study. However, Raven and French did find that subjects attributed a surprisingly high degree of legitimacy to the self-appointed person.

In contrast to these studies, research which has been unable to demonstrate a relationship between the method of selecting a leader and legitimacy systematically varied competence in the research design. For example, both Hollander and Julian (1970) and Goldman and Fraas (1965) were unable to find support for the hypothesis that elected leaders were perceived as more legitimate than appointed leaders. However, a number of studies have shown that competence alone is related to legitimacy (e.g., Croner and Willis, 1961; Hollander, 1960; Mausner, 1954). In these studies it was found that individuals who are perceived as competent compared to those who are perceived as lacking competence, exert greater influence on other's task performance. On the basis of their work, Hollander

and Julian (1970) concluded that a leader's influence depends mainly on how competent others in the group believe he is in helping the group achieve its goals or in maintaining its functions. If the leader was seen favorably in this respect, these authors argued that his subsequent assertions of influence would be more readily accepted, even if they represented deviations from group norms. Reactions to the spokesman in the Hollander and Julian (1970) studies testified to the importance of his perceived abilities and expertise. In these studies the high competent spokesmen were perceived to make more of a contribution to the discussion, were considered to be better qualified and increased members' satisfaction with their own participation more than did low competent spokesmen.

Although the importance of the concept of competence has been frequently confirmed in previous research, its relationship to the method of selecting a leader remains relatively unexplored. In a series of studies by Hollander and Julian (1970), however, it was found that competence is complexly related to the differences in legitimacy between appointed and elected leaders as well as task success. These authors used discussion groups which were given the task of determining the verdict of a hypothetical friend of the group members who was accused of cheating on an examination. They showed that the source of a leader's authority, by election or appointment, was reacted to differently by the group members, particularly in their continued endorsement of him in his role as a leader. Specifically, they found that, "for the elected spokesman, an incompetent man was rejected regardless of his success at the task, whereas

success increased the endorsement of the competent man. For the appointed spokesman, however, it was the competent man who was relatively immune to the effects of success or failure, while his incompetent counterpart suffered a dramatically lowered endorsement if he failed". Thus, depending on the follower's perception of the leader's initial competence, elected leaders who were unsuccessful at representing the group were susceptible to a withdrawal of group support.

One purpose of the present study was to examine how competence and the method of selecting a leader affected an individual's perceptions of the leader's legitimacy. Although there is some evidence that elected leaders are perceived to be more legitimate than appointed leaders, could it be that differences between election and appointment are due to differences in competence alone? Or, do competence and leader selection interact with each other to produce differences in leader legitimacy? This latter consideration would be consistent with some of the reviewed research findings. It may be that when an individual is perceived as competent by the group members, his selection as the group leader, whether by appointment or election, would receive group support. However, if the leader is perceived as lacking competence, his appointment may appear to be arbitrary and contrary to the group's interests, and so result in the withdrawal of support. On the other hand, election of a person lacking in competence may give the appearance of group support and so extend legitimacy to the leader's role.

Besides competence and the method of selecting a leader as

possible determinants of leader legitimacy, some authors have reasoned that participation in the group's decisions may increase the perception of the leader as legitimate in his role (Thibaut and Kelley, 1968). Many studies in industrial organizations and small groups have frequently demonstrated that member participation in decision-making is related to group satisfaction and acceptance of a leader (Gibb, 1968).

Participation has been considered in the research literature in at least two different ways. Cohen and Bennis (1961) considered participation in the selection process as a possible determinant of leader legitimacy. Specifically, these authors hypothesized that elected leaders would be perceived as more legitimate than appointed leaders because group members had participated in the election but not in the appointment procedure. However, no direct test of this hypothesis has been carried out. On the other hand, participation has been considered in a more general sense as individual group members' inclusion in the ongoing activities of the group. In an attempt to examine this kind of participation, Kelley (1951) found that for subjects who felt they had little influence, the possibility of upward mobility seems to have reduced the unattractiveness of their position. However, the preference of the individual in the low influence condition for the high influence position tended to disappear when the possibility of moving upwards seemed definitely blocked.

Thus it was decided to examine how the potential to participate in the decision-making process would affect leader legitimacy. It

was expected that if subjects were given an opportunity to change to a more participative role (mobile condition), they would grant greater legitimacy to the leader than when this opportunity was unavailable (no mobility condition). A further consideration of this research was to examine participation in the more limited sense of participation in the election procedure. According to Cohen and Bennis (1961) it could be expected that persons who participate in the election will be relatively more satisfied and extend greater legitimacy to the leader's role than persons who do not participate. Thus it was expected that voters would extend greater legitimacy to the leader than nonvoters in an election procedure.

The Problem

At least two difficulties confronted the studies reviewed on leader legitimacy. One involved the social situation used to test the hypotheses. At best the tasks given subjects were trivial and unrelated to life-like situations. In this experiment the need for a hierarchical social situation in which leader and follower roles were clearly differentiated was satisfied by asking subjects to participate as members of a court of law to consider several criminal cases. This procedure had the advantage of stimulating face-to-face interaction in a situation where each individual's role could be varied in influence and ability to participate in the verdict of the court. To facilitate role differentiation in the group, the judge's role was described as highly influential and important, whereas jury members were described as observers obliged to accept directives from the judge. The courtroom was thus used as a stage

to develop the relationship between the high power role of the judge (leader) and the low power role of the jury member (follower).

A second difficulty with studies of leader legitimacy concerns the ability to make comparisons between the research findings. Due to the variety of dependent measures and procedures used, few of the findings provide replications for previous research. To satisfy the need for making comparisons with other studies, a wide range of dependent measures was used to assess subject's perceptions of the leader.

In the current study the effects of three variables on ascribing leader legitimacy were examined: (1) the method of selecting a leader, (2) qualifications of the person chosen for the leadership role; and (3) the potential opportunity to participate in the decision-making process.

In selecting a person for the leadership position, three conditions were compared. In the first, subjects were allowed to elect an individual to the leadership role; second, the leader was appointed by the experimenter and third, some members were given the opportunity to vote for the leader and some members were not given this opportunity. This last condition was included in order to assess how persons who had participated in the election differed from persons who had not been given this opportunity in ascribing legitimacy to the "elected" leader.

Hypotheses

1. It was hypothesized that a leader who was perceived as competent

for the position would be perceived as more legitimate than an individual who was presented as lacking competence.

2. It was predicted that the possibility of increased participation in the decision-making process would increase subjects' acceptance of the leader's legitimacy.
3. Although some research indicates that elected leaders were perceived as more legitimate than appointed leaders, it was hypothesized that competence would influence this relationship. Specifically, it was predicted that elected leaders would be perceived as more legitimate than appointed leaders only if the leader did not appear to be qualified for the leadership role.
4. It was hypothesized that voters would extend greater legitimacy to the leader than nonvoters in an election procedure.

Method

Subjects

The subjects were 240 male students enrolled in the introductory course of psychology at the University of Alberta. Students chose to participate in the experiment for partial fulfillment of course requirements. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of 48 groups, each group being composed of 5 persons and a confederate of the experimenter.

Procedure

On arriving for the experiment, subjects were seated around a rectangular table on which had been placed 6 color cards for purposes of identification. The subjects were asked to participate in a courtroom drama requiring them to role play various members of the court. Subjects were told that it was of interest to know how persons perceive a court case from the perspective of different character roles in the courtroom. They were told that two hypothetical cases, based on actual occurrences, would be presented. Their task was to make judgments about the case from the character role they were assigned.

Subjects were told that the court was composed of four principal members; the judge, prosecutor, defense, and jury. The role of the judge was described as a high power role relative to the other court members. The judge was assigned the task of giving the

final verdict to the court on the basis of the information and arguments presented. He was given the power to object to prosecution or defense arguments. The judge was also required to assign the other subjects to their respective roles in the court and to read the case materials.

The prosecutor and defense roles were also described as active and important. The prosecutor was required to argue that the defendant was guilty as charged, on the basis of any information given or inferred from the summary transcript. Similarly the defense had to prepare an interpretation of the case which would favor a verdict of not guilty. In either case the prosecution and defense were requested to present arguments consistent with their roles, no matter what their personal beliefs were.

The jury members' roles were defined as nonactive. They were not allowed to discuss the case among themselves nor to ask any questions during the proceedings. The task of the jury members was explained as requiring them to objectively evaluate the arguments of the prosecutor and the defense to determine who argued his position more effectively.

After the character roles had been defined and their duties outlined, subjects participated in the selection of the judge. To find the best choice from among the group members, they were asked to fill out forms regarding their qualifications for this role. This form, which is presented in Appendix A, asked the subjects to rate themselves on their ability to be persuasive, logical, confident, etc. Subjects used the color-coded cards for purposes of

identifying themselves to the group members. On completion of this questionnaire, subjects were asked to pass the forms to their left to study how the other persons had rated themselves. After the subjects had read all the self-ratings, the experimenter told them a judge would be chosen from among the group members.

Three different procedures were used to choose the judge. In one condition, subjects were told that the judge would be chosen by an election - a method which had been accepted unanimously by a number of previous groups. This instruction is similar to that used by French and Raven (1958) designed to establish the legitimacy of the election procedure as a means of designating the judge. In the election condition subjects were requested to mark a preferential ballot for the person they thought would be the best choice for the role. The ballot form is presented in Appendix B. The ballots were counted by the experimenter, who after some consideration announced that the "subject", who was actually the confederate, was chosen as the judge.

In the second condition an appointment procedure was used. After each subject had examined all the qualification forms, the experimenter collected them. After a few moments of studying the forms, the experimenter appointed the subject, who was in fact the confederate, to fill the judge's role.

The third condition was a partial election procedure used to compare voters and nonvoters. Subjects were told that they had to draw lots to determine who could vote in an election for the judge. No explanation for this procedure was offered, except that the

experiment required some people to vote and prevented others from doing so. The lots were distributed so that equal numbers of persons voted or were prevented from doing so. Votes were counted and scored in the same manner as in the election condition.

In every case, whether by election or by appointment, the confederate was chosen to be the judge. The confederate had either rated himself as very qualified or below average in qualifications for his role. A qualified confederate rated himself as a student of law, a good lawyer, articulate, logical, etc. In the low qualifications condition, the confederate rated himself as a student of plant sciences, a poor lawyer, and low on the descriptive adjective items. Appendix C presents the self-ratings of the confederate in the high and low qualifications conditions.

Once the confederate had been selected as the judge, he was asked to appoint persons to the remaining roles. Although the confederate appeared to carefully consider his choices, subjects were assigned on a random basis. After the assignment of roles had been made, subjects moved to a new seating arrangement in a different part of the room. A diagram of this arrangement is shown in Appendix D. Each subject was seated at a table on which had been placed a card labelling his character role.

Before the first case was presented, subjects received instructions concerning changing roles in the second case. The instructions, adapted from Cohen (1958), were designed to create both status and power differences between the roles. Cohen defined status in terms of the desirability and satisfaction provided by participating in a

role and power as the control an individual had over satisfying his own and others' needs. In the Mobile condition, the jurors were told, "The other members of the court have much more to say concerning the verdict and you would probably find their jobs more interesting and important than your own. We feel that it is important that everyone be allowed to express their views and so you will be given the opportunity to participate in a more satisfying role". In the Nonmobile condition, the jurors were told, "The other members of the court have much more to say concerning the verdict and you would probably find their jobs more interesting and important than your own. It would be nice if some of you could be given the opportunity to participate in a more satisfying role, but in order for the court to work best, we want them to stay on in order for them to get used to it".

The court case used was that of John Williams versus the Crown on a charge of non-capital murder. The case was adapted from Sears and Freedman (1965) and was selected because of its ambiguity which did not favor a particular verdict. The case is presented in Appendix E.

To begin the court session, portfolios were presented to the prosecutor, defense and the judge. The judge was asked to read the case aloud so the remainder of the court members could familiarize themselves with the details of the case. Once the case had been read, the prosecutor and defense were instructed to prepare their respective cases. They were told to construct an interpretation of the facts presented to favor a position consistent with their role.

During the three minutes provided to prepare arguments, the jury was asked to rate what they thought the verdict should be. This pre-verdict questionnaire is presented in Appendix F. These forms were collected before the arguments were presented in the case.

To ensure that the treatment conditions were similar for groups in the same condition, the confederate's role had been previously standardized and rehearsed. To begin the trial, the experimenter instructed the judge to call on the two lawyers to alternate in their arguments. During the proceedings, the judge's participation in the court was the same for all subjects. To facilitate the importance of the judge's role, at an appropriate moment he asked two questions, one of the prosecution and one of the defense. These questions were used to give the impression that the judge was a participating member of the court. They were designed to be nondirective and did not reflect a bias on the part of the judge toward the case. Of the prosecution he asked, "How would you explain the fact that it was Mr. Burdick who picked up the knife and not John?", and of the defense he asked, "How would you explain the police expert's testimony about the angle of entry of the knife if John did not stab Mr. Burdick?"

Once each lawyer had spoken at least twice and about five minutes had elapsed, the experimenter asked the judge to distribute forms to the jury requesting them to rate who had argued the case more effectively. The question was, "In your own view who do you think argued the more effective case?" After the jury members had written down their choices, they were told they would be given

additional information concerning the case. The information, which either strongly favored the case for the prosecution or the defense, was designed to facilitate attitude change toward the defendant. The presentation of this information was introduced by telling the subjects, "We now would like you to consider an interpretation of this case prepared by an individual familiar with the original transcript of the trial". Whether the presentation favored the prosecution or the defense, some of the information was contradictory to the summary of the transcript read at the beginning of the trial. This allowed subjects to either accept or reject the interpretation as valid. The arguments used in the consideration which favored either the prosecution or the defense were adapted from Sandilands (1969). Considerations favoring acquittal are presented in Appendix G and considerations favoring conviction are presented in Appendix H.

After this information had been presented the judge was asked to give his verdict and his reason for it on the basis of, "the prosecution and defense arguments, the summary transcript and the interpretation based on the original transcript". The judge then presented his summary statement in which his verdict was consistent with the additional information presented. He stated his reasons for the verdict as his acceptance of the new information presented as demonstrating the defendant's guilt or innocence. The judge's endorsement of this information constituted an influence attempt to have the jury members accept his verdict.

The judge was thanked for his verdict and the experimenter

instructed the subjects that they would continue with the next case after the completion of some forms concerning their impressions of the first case. This form included the dependent measures and manipulation checks reported in the Results section. See Appendix I for this questionnaire. Along with this questionnaire the jury members were asked to again complete Form F (Appendix F) which required them to evaluate the verdict on the basis of any information they had received since they first filled it out.

On completion of these forms, subjects were asked a number of open-ended questions concerning their impressions of the case, the selection of the judge and the proceedings of the trial. An attempt was made to determine what subjects thought the purpose of the experiment was as well as what they thought the experimenter hoped to find. After the discussion, subjects were told that the second case would not be considered, and they were told the actual nature of the study.

Results

To test the hypotheses, several dependent measures were examined. These included four measures of subjects' perceptions of the judge, two measures of the judge's influence, and one measure of subjects' satisfaction with their own role. Prior to the analysis of these dependent measures, a number of checks were completed to determine if the manipulations had been effective. Included in the preliminary analysis were 144 subjects who had participated as mock jury members in the case of John Williams versus the Crown on a charge of non-capital murder. The summary tables of all the results are presented in Appendix J.

Court Structure

To test the hypotheses, it was necessary to create a social structure in which the power assigned to the roles was hierarchically distributed. The instructions were designed to assign the greatest influence to the role of judge and the least influence to the role of a jury member. To test if the subjects perceived their role as having little influence relative to the judge's role, they were asked to rate how much influence they felt they had in the courtroom. A 7-point scale was used, with 1 representing no influence at all and 7 reflecting a great deal of perceived influence. The overall mean perceived influence score for 144 jury members was $\bar{X} = 2.32$ (SD = 5.01). By comparison a second analysis was carried out to determine if the subjects perceived the judge to have more

influence than themselves. The mean influence rating assigned to the judge's role was $\bar{X} = 5.86$ ($SD = 4.20$). The difference between the influence they perceived themselves to have and their rating of the judge's influence was found to be highly significant ($t = 6.56$, $df = 94$, $p < .01$).

In addition to the jurors' ratings of perceived influence, prosecutors and defense attorneys were asked to rate how much influence they perceived themselves to have. The mean perceived influence score that the attorneys perceived themselves to have was $\bar{X} = 5.27$ ($SD = 4.24$). A t-test analysis revealed that the difference between the amount of influence jury members perceived themselves to have the attorneys perceived themselves to have was significant ($t = 4.91$, $df = 238$, $p < .01$). It was concluded that jury members perceived themselves to have considerably less influence than the judge and also considerably less influence than the defense and prosecution perceived themselves to have.

In addition to these results, it was found that subjects perceived themselves to have more influence if the judge's qualifications were low than if his qualifications were high ($F = 9.12$, $df = 1/36$, $p < .01$). The mean perceived influence score when the judge was qualified was $\bar{X} = 2.00$ and when the judge was not qualified was $\bar{X} = 2.64$. Thus, although jury members perceived themselves as having less influence than either the judge or the lawyers perceived themselves to have, their perception of influence was affected by the judge's qualifications. No other significant effects were found. A summary of this analysis of variance is presented in Table 1.

Subjects were also asked to choose who they felt was the most important member of the court. Of the 144 jury members, 90 (62.5%) chose the judge, 22 (15.3%) chose the prosecutor, 20 (13.9%) chose the defense and 12 (8.7%) chose the jury. Overall, it appears that the judge was perceived to have considerable influence and importance relative to the jury members.

Judge's Qualifications

The group member chosen as the judge, actually the confederate of the experimenter, either rated himself high or low in qualifications. To determine how subjects perceived the judge's qualifications, they were asked if they thought the person chosen as the judge was the best person for the role. Agreement was measured on a 7-point scale where 1 represented disagreement that the person chosen was the best choice and 7 reflected agreement. It was found that when the confederate rated himself high in qualifications, subjects more frequently agreed that he was the best choice than if he had rated himself low ($F = 20.98$, $df = 1/36$, $p < .01$). The mean agreement score for a confederate who rated himself high in qualifications was $\bar{X} = 5.35$ and for a confederate who rated himself low was $\bar{X} = 3.51$. No other significant effects were found. A summary of this analysis of variance is presented in Table 2.

An analysis was also completed on the number of times subjects in an election condition actually chose the confederate for the judge's role. In 16 groups where the confederate had rated himself high in qualifications he was actually elected by a

majority 16 times (100%). On the other hand, in 16 groups where the confederate had rated himself low in qualifications he was actually elected by a majority 0 times (0%).

Mobility

Mobility was defined as the opportunity to change to a more participative role. It was hypothesized that a social situation in which people could increase their relative influence in the decision-making process would extend greater legitimacy to the leader than one where this opportunity was unavailable. An item was included to determine if subjects had understood the instructions that they were in a group which was to change roles. The results indicated that all the subjects clearly understood the mobility instructions. Furthermore, an item was included asking subjects to evaluate how important it was to change to a more participative role. A 7-point scale was used where 1 indicated that subjects felt it was unimportant to change roles and 7 indicated it was important to do so. The overall mean score for the importance of changing roles for jury members, was $\bar{X} = 5.25$ ($SD = 5.35$), and for prosecution and defense attorneys was $\bar{X} = 3.21$ ($SD = 4.86$). The difference between these means was statistically significant ($t = 4.41$, $df = 96$, $p < .01$). This finding indicated that changing roles was important to jury members, who felt they had little influence in the courtroom. However, attorneys who as a group felt they had greater influence, reported that it was less important to change roles. An analysis of variance of the item asking subjects to evaluate how important it was to change to a different role revealed no significant results.

A summary of this analysis of variance is reported in Table 3.

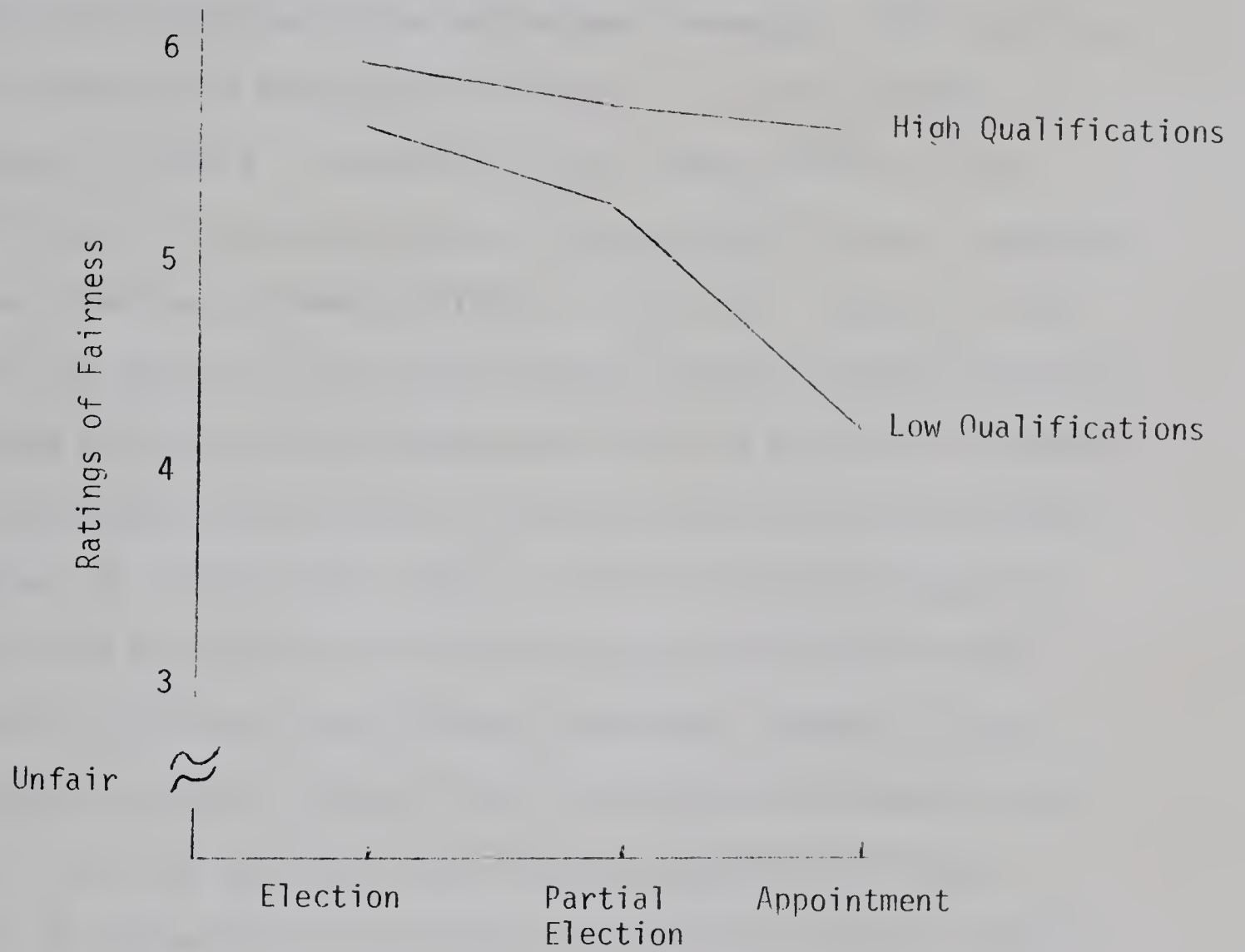
When jury members were asked if they wanted to change roles 103 (70.8%) replied they did. By comparison only 25 (26.0%) of prosecutors and defense lawyers expressed a desire to change roles. This difference was significant at the .01 level, by chi-square analysis ($\chi^2 = 20.53$, $p < .01$). This finding indicated that changing roles was more important to jury members than other members of the court.

Selection Procedures

To determine if subjects perceived differences between the three selection procedures used to select a judge, they were asked to rate how fair each procedure was. An analysis of variance revealed a main effect difference between the three selection procedures ($F = 5.41$, $df = 2/36$, $p < .01$). The mean fairness score was highest for the election procedure ($\bar{X} = 5.77$), next highest for the partial election procedure ($\bar{X} = 5.46$), and lowest for the appointment procedure ($\bar{X} = 4.94$). Using t-test analyses, it was found that only the appointment and election procedures were significantly different ($t = 2.65$, $df = 22$, $p < .01$). A summary of the t-test analyses is presented in Table 4. In addition to this result, it was found that subjects perceived the method of selection to be more fair if the judge had rated himself high in qualifications for the role than if he had rated himself low ($F = 11.03$, $df = 1/36$, $p < .01$). The mean fairness score under the high qualifications condition was $\bar{X} = 5.74$ and under the low qualifications condition was $\bar{X} = 5.04$. It was concluded that the selection of an individual to be the judge was perceived to be more fair if the group agreed that

Figure 1

The Selection Procedure x Qualifications Interaction for the Fairness of the Selection Procedures



he was the best choice for the role.

A significant selection procedure x qualifications interaction was also found ($F = 4.52$, $df = 2/36$, $p < .05$). This finding indicated that the differences in perceived fairness between the high and low qualified individuals increased numerically from the election to the partial election to the appointment procedure. This relationship is graphically represented in Figure 1. A table of means is presented in Table 5. An analysis of the simple effects of the qualifications revealed that only in the low qualifications condition did the selection procedures differ ($F = 6.01$, $df = 2/42$, $p < .01$). Further, an analysis of the simple effects of the selection procedures indicated that only in the appointment condition was there a significant difference in how subjects rated the fairness of the selection procedures ($F = 10.22$, $df = 1/42$, $p < .01$). It was concluded the subjects did not differ in their satisfaction with the selection procedure in the high qualifications condition. However, in the appointment condition subjects rated the selection procedure as very unfair if the low qualified individual was chosen as the judge. A summary of the analysis of variance is presented in Table 6 and summaries of the analyses for simple effects are presented in Table 7.

From the preliminary analyses it was concluded that subjects perceived the court structure to be hierarchically organized. Jury members felt they had little influence in relation to the judge, whom they perceived as important and influential. The qualifications of the person chosen to be the judge were an important factor in the subjects' acceptance of that person as the best choice to fill

the role. Mobility was an important factor to subjects who occupied a low power position. Jurors more often than prosecutors or defense councils expressed a desire to change roles. Finally, the procedures used to select the judge were perceived differently. Although an election procedure was perceived to be more fair than appointment by the experimenter, this was the case only when the judge was less qualified.

Major Findings

Since the manipulations were effective and of importance to the subjects, it was concluded that the situation constituted an adequate test for the hypotheses. In the analyses of the dependent measures, 144 subjects were included, using 4 groups with 3 subjects per cell. No subjects were excluded from the final analysis. The results were analyzed using a complete $3 \times 2 \times 2$ factorial design with equal replications. These included three selection procedures to determine the choice of judge, two levels of qualifications of the judge, and two levels of mobility, giving subjects the opportunity to change roles or not giving them this opportunity. Rather than using subjects within treatments as the error term, since groups were nested and randomly assigned to treatments, groups within treatments was used as the appropriate error term (Winer, 1962; p. 184-186). All the scales used to assess perceptions of the judge or oneself were based on a 7-point scale where 1 represented an unfavorable evaluation and 7 represented a favorable evaluation.

Perception of the Judge

One of the primary dependent measures was the jurors' perceptions of the judge. The four dimensions of the subjects' relevant perceptions which were used were: acceptance of the judge as a legitimate source of influence, satisfaction with the judge's performance, degree of favorableness of the opinions about the judge and the likelihood of choosing the judge in the second case.

An analysis of the first variable, perceived legitimacy, revealed that in the high qualifications condition subjects evaluated the judge as more legitimate than in the low qualifications condition ($F = 8.89$, $df = 1/36$, $p < .01$). The mean legitimacy score under the high qualifications condition was $\bar{X} = 4.69$ and under the low qualifications condition was $\bar{X} = 3.92$. No other significant results were found. A summary of this analysis of variance is presented in Table 8.

Analysis of the second variable, satisfaction with the judge's performance, yielded significant main effects for the mobility and qualifications conditions. If the judge had rated himself as qualified, subjects were more satisfied with his performance than if he had rated himself as unqualified ($F = 49.41$, $df = 1/36$, $p < .01$). The mean satisfaction score in the high qualifications condition was $\bar{X} = 5.33$, and under the low qualifications condition was $\bar{X} = 3.89$. Similarly, if subjects were told that they would have the opportunity to change to a preferred role, they were more satisfied with the performance of the judge than if they were told they would not have the opportunity to do so ($F = 7.31$, $df = 1/36$,

$p < .025$). The mean satisfaction score under conditions of mobility was $\bar{X} = 4.89$ and under conditions of no mobility was $\bar{X} = 4.33$. No other significant results were found. A summary of this analysis of variance is reported in Table 9.

The third variable, attractiveness of the judge, was assessed on seven items including maturity, competence, intelligence, sensitivity, fairness, credibility, and creativity. In the high qualifications condition, it was found that subjects rated the judge as more attractive than in the low qualifications condition ($F = 47.92$, $df = 1/36$, $p < .01$). The mean attractiveness score when the judge rated himself as qualified was $\bar{X} = 36.06$ and when he rated himself as unqualified was $\bar{X} = 31.39$. Furthermore, if subjects were told that they would have the opportunity of changing to a preferred role they rated the judge as more attractive than if they were not given this opportunity ($F = 7.40$, $df = 1/36$, $p < .01$). The mean attractiveness rating in the mobility condition was $\bar{X} = 34.64$ and in the no mobility condition was $\bar{X} = 32.81$. In addition to the main effects, the mobility x selection procedure interaction was significant ($F = 3.75$, $df = 2/36$, $p < .05$). This finding indicated that the differences in the attractiveness scores of the judge in the mobility and no mobility conditions were less in the partial election procedure than either the election or appointment procedures. Table 10 presents the mobility x selection procedure interaction. No other significant effects were found. A summary of this analysis of variance is presented in Table 11.

The fourth variable, choice of the judge in the second case,

revealed that when the judge rated himself high in qualifications, he was chosen 48 times (66.7%) as the subjects' choice to continue in this capacity. However, if he rated himself as low in qualifications he received only 29 choices (40.3%) to continue as the judge in the next case. This difference was found to be significant at the .02 level, by chi-square ($\chi^2 = 6.514, p < .02$).

Table 10

The Mobility x Selection Procedure Interaction
for the Judge's Attractiveness

Mobility	Election	Partial Election	Appointment
Mobile	34.92	33.92	34.04
Nonmobile	31.82	33.42	31.96

The Judge as a Source of Influence

The judge's legitimacy in his role was considered as a base for exerting influence over the juror's verdict. In order to assess the judge's influence, the case material was designed to be sufficiently ambiguous so as to neither favor the prosecution nor the defense. The verdict was assessed on an 11-point scale where -5 represented agreement with a not guilty verdict, 0 represented an undecided verdict and +5 represented agreement with a guilty verdict. The mean verdict for 144 jury members after the initial reading of the case material was $\bar{X} = -0.13$ (SD = 3.12). It was concluded that the case did not favor either the side of the prosecution or the defense.

Following the arguments made by the attorneys, the judge presented information favoring either the prosecution or the defense. To determine if the information presented influenced jurors' decisions, they were asked to give their verdicts before and after the presentation of this information. An analysis of variance of the initial verdict scores revealed no significant results. A summary of this analysis of variance is presented in Table 12. It was concluded that the treatment groups did not differ significantly regarding the verdict before the information was presented by the judge. Following the presentation of this information, when the defendant was found guilty, the juror's mean verdict was $\bar{X} = 2.14$ (SD = 3.71) and when the defendant was found not guilty, the juror's mean verdict was $\bar{X} = -2.36$ (SD = 3.92). The mean change in verdict was 2.25 units. The change in verdict produced by the information presented by the judge was statistically significant both when the information favored the prosecution ($t = 4.02$, $df = 96$, $p < .01$) and when it favored the defense ($t = 4.87$, $df = 94$, $p < .01$).

To determine if the judge's influence was affected by the treatment conditions, the change in verdict scores was analyzed using an analysis of variance procedure. No significant results were found. A summary of this analysis of variance is reported in Table 13.

Jurors' confidence about the verdict was also assessed. The mean confidence score after the initial reading of the case was $\bar{X} = 5.53$ (SD = 3.4) on an 11-point scale where 1 represented little confidence in the verdict and 11 a great deal of confidence. After

the judge's decision, the mean confidence score was $\bar{X} = 7.56$ ($SD = 3.14$) when the defendant was found not guilty and $\bar{X} = 6.96$ ($SD = 3.01$) when the defendant was found guilty. The mean confidence change was 1.75 units. There was a statistically significant increase in confidence for both a guilty ($t = 3.81$, $df = 94$, $p < .01$) and a not guilty verdict ($t = 4.51$, $df = 94$, $p < .01$). It was concluded that the information presented after the initial reading of the case served to increase subjects' confidence in the verdict.

An analysis of variance of the confidence scores after the case was first read revealed no significant results. A summary of this analysis of variance is presented in Table 14. It was concluded that the treatment groups did not differ significantly regarding how confident they were about the verdict after the initial presentation of the case. Following the judge's decision, subjects were asked to again rate their confidence about the verdict. The analysis of variance of the change in confidence scores revealed a significant main effect for qualifications ($F = 5.21$, $df = 1/36$, $p < .05$). The results indicated that jurors' confidence increased more when the judge was qualified than when the judge was not qualified. The mean confidence score was $\bar{X} = 1.98$ in the high qualifications condition and was $\bar{X} = 1.24$ in the low qualifications condition. No other significant effects were found. A summary of this analysis is presented in Table 15.

Satisfaction With One's Own Role

An analysis of how satisfied jurors were with their own role

revealed that they were more satisfied if the judge had rated himself high in qualifications than if he had rated himself low ($F = 12.00$, $df = 1/36$, $p < .01$). The mean satisfaction score was $\bar{X} = 4.44$ when the judge had rated himself high and was $\bar{X} = 3.46$ when the judge had rated himself low. Also it was found that when jurors had the opportunity to change roles they were relatively more satisfied with their own role than if this opportunity had been unavailable ($F = 5.07$, $df = 1/36$, $p < .05$). The mean satisfaction score in the mobility condition was $\bar{X} = 4.56$ and in the no mobility condition was $\bar{X} = 3.74$. No other significant effects were found. A summary of this analysis of variance is presented in Table 16.

Satisfaction With The Verdict

Jurors' ratings of the satisfaction with the verdict revealed that they were more satisfied with a not guilty verdict than a guilty verdict ($F = 6.69$, $df = 1/24$, $p < .025$). The mean satisfaction score for a not guilty verdict was $\bar{X} = 5.10$ and for a guilty verdict was $\bar{X} = 4.31$. A summary of this analysis of variance is presented in Table 17. Although the jurors found the defendant guilty as often as not guilty, they were generally more satisfied when the information presented favored a not guilty verdict. This result may have reflected a general reluctance on the part of subjects to convict the defendant even though they believed such a decision. No other significant results were found.

Voters and Nonvoters

It was hypothesized that voting, as a form of participation,

would increase subjects' acceptance of the judge. Thus the partial election condition was divided into two equal groups including 24 voters and 24 nonvoters. The dependent measures were assessed in a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ factorial design with 6 subjects per cell. The factors were, qualifications or no qualifications, mobility or no mobility and voters and nonvoters. The dependent measures were attractiveness of the judge, satisfaction with the judge, legitimacy of the judge, perceived influence of the judge, satisfaction with one's role and desire to change roles.

Two of these dependent measures indicated that voters and nonvoters differed. Persons who voted rated the judge as more attractive than persons who did not vote ($F = 4.38$, $df = 1/24$, $p < .05$). The mean attractiveness score for voters was $\bar{X} = 35.25$ and for nonvoters was $\bar{X} = 32.84$. Furthermore, voters were more likely to change their verdicts in agreement with information presented by the judge than were nonvoters ($F = 5.20$, $df = 1/24$, $p < .05$). The mean change in verdict for voters was $\bar{X} = 3.06$ and for nonvoters was $\bar{X} = 1.41$. Although not significant, there was also a tendency for voters to increase their confidence about the verdict more than nonvoters ($F = 3.33$, $df = 1/24$, $p < .10$). The mean confidence increase was 2.83 units for voters and 1.54 units for nonvoters. No other significant results were found. The summaries of these analyses of variance are presented in Table 18 (A-G).

Correlational Analysis

Ten indices were intercorrelated to determine the nature of

the relationship between the dependent measures. These included satisfaction with one's own role, satisfaction with the judge's performance, the desire to change roles, the desire to continue with the judge in the second case, the attractiveness of the judge, the fairness of the selection procedure, perceived influence of one's own role, change in verdict and change in confidence about the verdict.

An interesting relationship which appeared in this analysis revealed that subjects who had perceived the judge as more attractive were more susceptible to his influence. This finding is consistent with other research which has demonstrated that the more the subject likes the source of a persuasive message, the more he will change his belief toward the position the source is advocating (McGuire, 1968). Possibly in adopting the position urged by the source, subjects are able to enhance their self-esteem through identification with him.

Perceptions of the judge indicated an overall consistent pattern. It was found that the more the jurors perceived the judge as attractive, the more satisfied they were with his performance, the more they perceived him as legitimate, and the more likely they were to choose him in the second case to continue in this capacity. Furthermore, increased attractiveness was correlated with greater satisfaction with one's own role, less of a desire to change roles and a greater likelihood of perceiving the selection procedure as fair. These findings indicate that jury members may compare their role with that of the judge's role. When the judge was perceived

favorably, jurors' ratings of their own roles were more favorable.

It was also found that the greater the satisfaction with the judge's performance the more likely subjects were to choose the judge to continue in this capacity in the second case and the more likely they were to perceive him as legitimate and attractive. Furthermore, if the subjects wanted to change roles, this was correlated with a desire not to have the judge continue in this role, to perceive themselves as having less influence, and to view the judge as less attractive. These results indicated that jurors' perceptions of the judge represent general categories of acceptance or rejection. A dissatisfaction with one's own role and a desire to change was related to negative evaluations of the judge whereas satisfaction with one's own role and the selection procedure was related to positive evaluations of the judge. The correlation matrix is presented in Table 19.

Discussion

To test the hypotheses, a hierarchically structured social situation was created in which the role relationships differed in relative influence and importance. The simulated courtroom proved to be an effective medium to study leader-member relations. Jurors (members) perceived their role as lacking influence and regarded the judge (leader) as influential and important in the courtroom activity.

One of the most consistent findings of the current research was the pervasive influence the qualifications of the person chosen as the judge had on jurors' perceptions of the courtroom activity. It was found that when the confederate had rated himself high in qualifications he was consistently elected by a majority of group members to fill the judge's role, but if he rated himself low he was not chosen to fill that role. In addition, jurors rated the confederate as, "the best choice for the judge's role" only in the case where he appeared to be more qualified than any of the other group members. These findings are consistent with Gibb's (1968) contention that group leaders are chosen on the basis of those resources valued by the group as necessary to the attainment of its goals or the fulfillment of its ongoing activities.

Besides affecting the acceptance of the confederate for the judge's role, the judge's qualifications influenced jurors' perceptions of their own roles. Jurors were generally more satisfied

with their roles if the judge was well qualified. It was also found that the judge's qualifications affected jurors' perceptions of their own influence and their desire to participate in another role. Jurors felt they had less influence and they also expressed less of a desire to change to a more participative role if the judge appeared qualified than if he did not appear qualified. Perhaps the subjects devalued their own ability to be influential and participate more actively because they were intimidated by the judge's perceived expertise. This might lead one to speculate that persons are more likely to be motivated towards upward mobility when they feel they are at least equal in ability to the person already in that role.

In addition to these results, it was found that when the best qualified person was selected as the group leader, his choice received group support. Jurors perceived him as more legitimate, were better satisfied with his selection and performance, rated him more favorably on the attractiveness measures, and chose him more often to continue in this capacity in a second case. However, not in all conditions was the best qualified person selected as the leader. In those conditions where the less qualified person was presumably elected or appointed by the experimenter, he suffered a lowered endorsement.

Since the group favored the emergence of the best qualified individual for the judge's role, it was expected that the endorsement of the confederate in the high qualifications condition would not be affected by the method of selection. Presumably group

support for the judge would be dependent more on whether jurors agreed with his choice than whether the selection procedure appeared "democratic" or not. Although it was expected that the appointment of a leader who was unqualified would result in a lowered endorsement, the election of an unqualified individual could give the appearance of having group support. The interaction of the selection method and the judge's qualifications was confirmed in jurors' ratings of the fairness of the selection procedure. As predicted, there were no differences among the selection procedures in the high qualifications condition. Furthermore, it was found that the appointment procedure was perceived to be less fair than any other condition if the unqualified confederate was chosen. These results were interpreted as indicating that in deciding whether an election increases the perceived legitimacy of a leader more than an appointment procedure, it is necessary to examine the qualifications of the individual chosen. Elections seem to be most effective in increasing a leader's legitimacy if he appears competent in his role.

The selection procedure, considered by itself, failed to be related to subject's perceptions of the judge, his influence, or perceptions of his own role. Although contrary to the expectation that elected leaders are perceived to be more legitimate than appointed leaders, these results are consistent with Hollander and Julian's (1970) and Goldman and Fraas' (1965) results which revealed that acceptance of a leader is more determined by who is chosen than the means by which he is selected. Even though persons place a high value on the democratic process, there are numerous examples outside

of the laboratory where we accept the appointment of individuals to prestigious and important positions. Members of the Senate and of the judiciary system are two illustrative examples. It would seem that the distinction between elected and appointed leaders is not a simple one and must be qualified by other factors. For example, the ideological similarity between the leader and group members as well as the nature of the interaction situation may contribute to perceived legitimacy.

Several researchers have speculated that a fundamental difference between election and appointment concerns the extent to which group members participate in the selection process. In view of the failure to confirm that the selection procedure was related to the legitimacy of the leader, the present study attempted to determine whether there were any differences between participants and nonparticipants in an election procedure. In order to assess the effect of participation in choosing a leader some persons were given the opportunity to vote and others were not given this opportunity. It was found that persons who had the opportunity to vote differed on several relevant aspects of their perceptions from persons who had been randomly and arbitrarily excluded from voting. Voters found the judge significantly more attractive than nonvoters and they were more likely to accept the judge's influence and change their verdict in agreement with the judge's opinions. Although not significant, there was a tendency for voters to increase their confidence about the verdict more than nonvoters and also to perceive themselves as having more influence. These results indicate

that there was a tendency for voters to extend greater legitimacy to the judge than those persons who were not given an opportunity to participate in the selection procedure. These results, however, must be interpreted with caution. It cannot be concluded that persons who do not participate in an election procedure of their own volition or due to circumstances beyond their control differ in their attitudes towards an elected leader from persons who participated in the election. A crucial factor in the rejection of an elected leader may be the arbitrary withdrawal of the opportunity or right to vote in the election procedure. One assumption which could be tested in this regard is that persons thwarted from exercising their democratic right to vote are less accepting of the leader and his influence attempts than persons who are given the opportunity to vote.

A further test of the participation hypothesis was assessed by leading subjects to expect to change roles (mobility) or not giving them this expectation (no mobility). It was hypothesized that if jurors could participate in the decision-making activity by changing to a more active role they would grant greater legitimacy to the judge. This assumption was only partially confirmed. It was found that jurors were more satisfied with their own role, more satisfied with the judge's performance and rated the judge as more attractive in the mobile condition. Mobility, however, was not related to the judge's ability to influence the verdict. It may be that actually participating in the decision-making process is more satisfying and effective than the mere opportunity to do so.

In the assessment of the judge's influence, it was found that jurors were persuaded to change their verdicts after hearing information presented by the judge regarding the case. Regardless of whether the verdict was guilty or not guilty, jurors were more likely to agree with the judge and be more confident about the outcome. This finding was somewhat surprising since this information was based on circumstantial evidence which conflicted with the original transcript. However, in no case was the judge's influence related to the treatment conditions. Two conclusions could be drawn from this finding. On the one hand, qualifications, selection procedure and mobility may have been unrelated to the judge's influence or the information favoring the prosecution or defense presented after the initial reading of the case may have obscured that relationship. There was, however, a relationship found between jurors' confidence regarding the verdict and the treatment conditions. It was found that when the judge was qualified, jury members expressed greater confidence in the acceptance of the verdict.

The correlation matrix of the dependent measures revealed that jurors' perceptions of the judge and his performance were related to subjects' satisfaction with their own roles and the courtroom activities. It was found that when jury members were satisfied with the verdict and their own role, their perceptions of the judge were consistently favorable. The various dimensions used to assess perceptions of the judge and his performance were found to be interrelated. Jurors were either generally favorable or unfavorable in their attitudes towards the judge. No relationship between

juror's satisfaction and acceptance of the judge's influence was found. This lack of finding corresponds to other studies which indicate that satisfaction is not directly related to other aspects of group activity (e.g., quality and acceptance of group decisions; Hoffman, 1965).

The general findings of this study suggest that acceptance of a leader's legitimacy is determined by a complex of factors particular to the interaction situation. The kind of interaction, the structure in the group and the relation of the leader to the group members all determine what factors will influence acceptance of the leader. A leader's qualifications are important when the ongoing activities are related to a decision-making process. His source of authority, by election or appointment was found to interact with how people perceived his abilities as a leader. Finally, a low influence role with the potential to change to a role of greater influence seems to decrease the unattractiveness of the low position and increase the attractiveness of the high position. Thus, the interrelation of factors in the group situation serve to determine the leader's ability to influence the group members.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Qualifications Questionnaire

Please circle your answers to the following questions:

1. How many years of university education have you had? (If this is your first year, circle 1).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. What is your current area of interest and concentration at the university?
-

3. How would you rate your ability to speak before a large group of people?

very poor 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 very good

4. How calm are you under conditions of stress?

not very calm 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 very calm

5. How would you describe yourself on these traits?

not very confident 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 confident

not very logical 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 logical

not very persuasive 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 persuasive

not very innovative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 innovative

not very precise 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 precise

6. How understanding are you of other's thoughts and feelings?

not very understanding 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 very understanding

7. Do you think that you would make a good lawyer?

poor 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 very good

Appendix B

Preferential Ballot

This ballot is to be used to choose the person you think would make the best judge. Mark your first choice by circling 1 next to the appropriate color. Similarly, circle 2 and 3 beside the colors which are your second and third choices for this role.

Black	1	2	3
White	1	2	3
Yellow	1	2	3
Blue	1	2	3
Orange	1	2	3
Red	1	2	3

Appendix C

Confederate's Self-Rating (High Qualifications) Questionnaire

Please circle your answers to the following questions:

1. How many years of university education have you had? (If this is your first year, circle 1).

1 2 3 (4) 5 6 7

2. What is your current area of interest and concentration at the university?

International Law and Political Science

3. How would you rate your ability to speak before a large group of people?

very poor 1 2 3 4 5 (6) 7 very good

4. How calm are you under conditions of stress?

not very calm 1 2 3 4 (5) 6 7 very calm

5. How would you describe yourself on these traits?

not very confident 1 2 3 4 5 6 (7) confident

not very logical 1 2 3 4 5 (6) 7 logical

not very persuasive 1 2 3 4 5 (6) 7 persuasive

not very innovative 1 2 3 4 5 (6) 7 innovative

not very precise 1 2 3 4 5 6 (7) precise

6. How understanding are you of other's thoughts and feelings?

not very understanding 1 2 3 4 5 (6) 7 very understanding

7. Do you think that you would make a good lawyer?

poor 1 2 3 4 5 6 (7) very good

Confederate's Self-Rating (Low Qualifications) Questionnaire

Please circle your answers to the following questions:

1. How many years of university education have you had? (If this is your first year, circle 1).

(1) 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. What is your current area of interest and concentration at the university:

Plant Sciences

3. How would you rate your ability to speak before a large group of people?

very poor 1 (2) 3 4 5 6 7 very good

4. How calm are you under conditions of stress?

not very calm 1 2 3 (4) 5 6 7 very calm

5. How would you describe yourself on these traits?

not very confident 1 2 (3) 4 5 6 7 confident

not very logical 1 (2) 3 4 5 6 7 logical

not very persuasive (1) 2 3 4 5 6 7 persuasive

not very innovative 1 2 (3) 4 5 6 7 innovative

not very precise 1 2 3 (4) 5 6 7 precise

6. How understanding are you of other's thoughts and feelings?

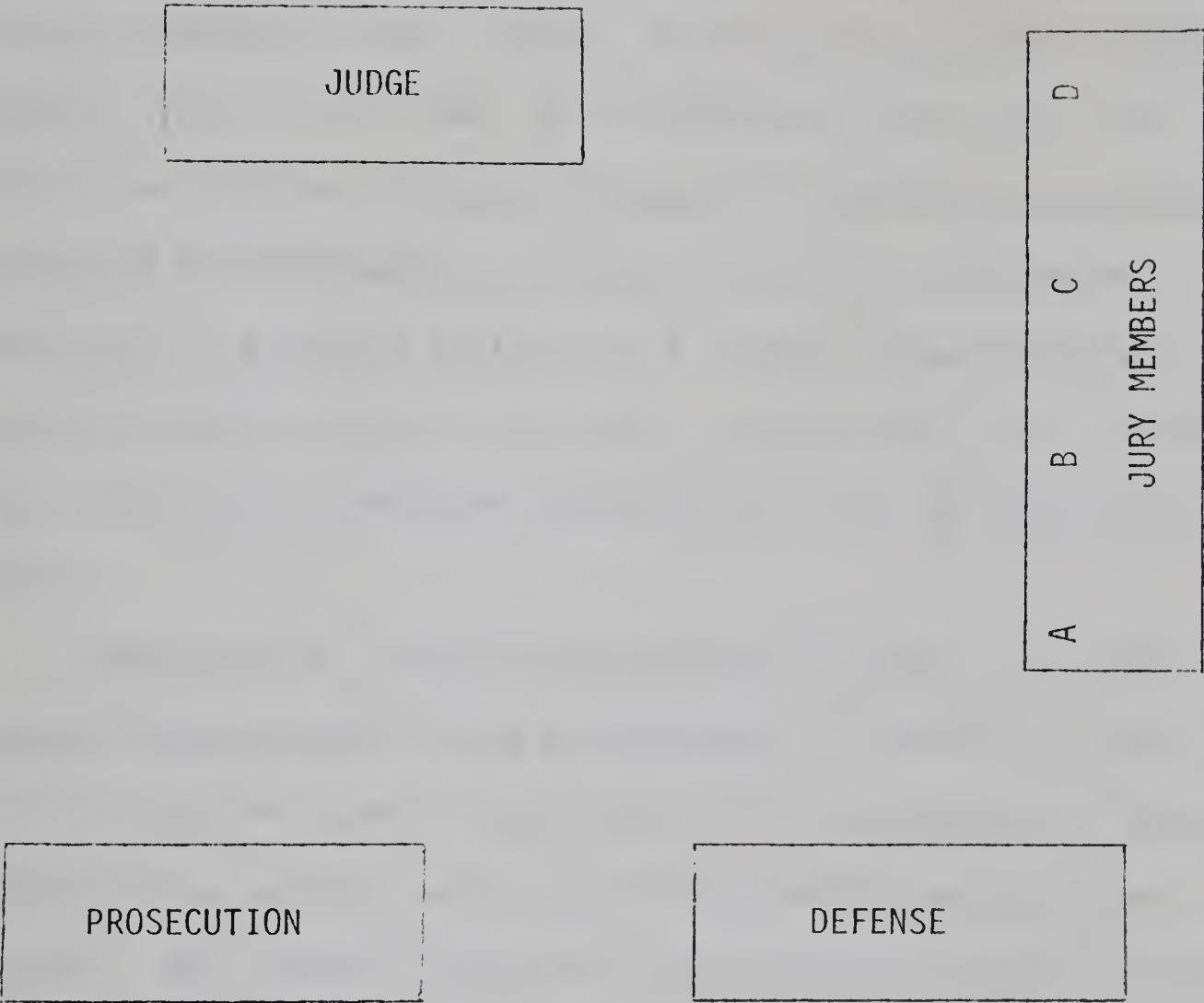
not very understanding 1 2 3 (4) 5 6 7 very understanding

7. Do you think that you would make a good lawyer?

poor 1 (2) 3 4 5 6 7 very good

Appendix D

Courtroom Setting



Appendix E

John Williams Versus the Crown

John Williams, age 19, has been charged with non-capital murder in the stabbing death of Robert Burdick, age 44. Robert Burdick, a carpenter by trade, had been unemployed at the time.

John (Johnny) Williams finished grade ten and quit school after three months of grade eleven. He was a below average student. From the time he quit school up to the time of the death of Mr. Burdick, he had been living as a boarder in the Burdick residence. Johnny had been employed in a succession of jobs, working as a "pump man" in a service station, as a delivery truck driver, as an unskilled laborer, and as a gardener. At the time of Mr. Burdick's death, Johnny was unemployed and had been so for the previous two months.

Johnny and Mr. Burdick had reportedly engaged in a number of arguments about Johnny's lack of employment. Witnesses at the trial testified that Mr. Burdick has often criticized Johnny for "being too lazy to go out and work" and for "having too many hoodlum friends". Mrs. Burdick, the wife of the deceased, usually refrained from commenting, witnesses testified.

On the day of the stabbing (a Saturday) the defendant had slept until early afternoon. When he got out of bed, Mr. Burdick began to harass him in the manner mentioned above. Mr. Burdick is also reported to have said that if Johnny "didn't start paying his rent on time", he would be "kicked out". This harassment continued

until the defendant went out drinking with a friend. When the defendant returned for the evening meal, the harassment began again. During the meal, the deceased accused the defendant of stealing money from him. A heated argument followed throughout which Mr. Burdick held his dinner knife. He still had it in his hand when the defendant tried to push his way out of the house. During what Mrs. Burdick described as a "shoving match", Mr. Burdick fell to the floor with the knife in his heart. Death was almost instantaneous.

The prosecution's case was based mostly on two witnesses, one of whom was an acquaintance of the defendant. This witness testified that the defendant had, on several occasions, stated that he "hated Mr. Burdick's guts" and that he would like to "cut them out". The second witness for the prosecution was a police expert who testified that the angle of entry of the knife made it unlikely that the deceased could have been holding it at the time of entry.

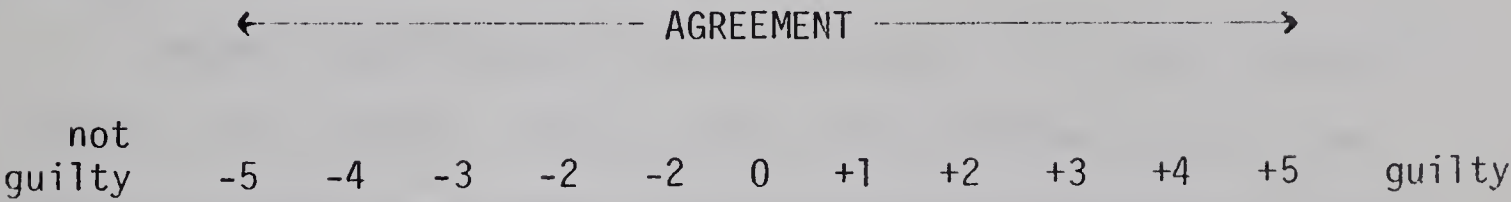
Appendix F

Assessment of the Verdict

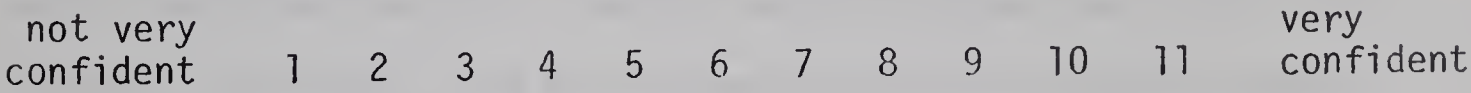
In the case of John Williams versus the Crown what would be your verdict?

A. Rate your level of agreement by circling your choice.

- i. a positive value indicates agreement with a guilty verdict.
- ii. a negative value indicates agreement with a not guilty verdict.
- iii. a value of "0" indicates that you are undecided as to what the correct verdict should be.



B. Rate how confident you are about your rating of the verdict.



Appendix G

Considerations Favoring Acquittal

In the case of the Crown versus John Williams, it is evident that the evidence presented by the prosecution was of a weak and circumstantial nature. The basis of the prosecution's case is that the defendant had made statements that he would like to kill Mr. Burdick, and that the knife could not have been held by the defendant. This is truly circumstantial evidence of the weakest sort.

First, the police witness who testified about the position of the knife only stated that it was unlikely but not impossible for the knife to have been held by the deceased.

Another consideration is the testimony of the key prosecution witness, Mrs. Burdick. At one point, she testified that she had heard her husband and Johnny fighting (implying that she was not in a position to have seen them fighting). At another point she testified to seeing them fighting. Also, there was evidence presented which indicated that Mrs. Burdick and her husband were very close and that she always took her husband's side in arguments between Johnny and Mr. Burdick. It seems very possible then that the account given by Mrs. Burdick was false.

Finally, the prosecution witness who testified that the defendant had made statements about killing Mr. Burdick was hesitant and unsure in testifying, especially when he was asked where and when these statements had been made. It is very conceivable that

his testimony was mistaken.

On the basis of this analysis, it seems that there is reasonable doubt to the prosecution's allegation that Johnny Williams murdered Mr. Burdick.

Appendix H

Considerations Favoring Conviction

The transcript of the trial of the Crown versus John Williams reveals several weaknesses in the defense council's arguments. First, the defense made a point of trying to see if Mrs. Burdick had often favored her husband in arguments with the defendant. Likely it was hoped that some doubt could be the case on her testimony. However, this approach backfired on the defense in that two witnesses testified that she was not very close to her husband and always stood by Johnny in arguments with him. It seems reasonable then that Mrs. Burdick's testimony that the death was not accidental was clearly supported.

Another point is that the expert witness testified that the wound in the body indicated that the knife had to have been held in the left hand of the deceased and at an angle which would have made it difficult for the deceased to have been holding it at all. The fact that the knife seems to have been held in the left hand of the deceased (if he held it at all) is important because when a right-handed person waves something around in an argument, he is likely to be waving it with his right hand and not his left hand. The deceased with right-handed.

On the basis of the analysis, it seems that the defense's allegation that the death was accidental was definitely not supported. Furthermore, the defendant had motive and opportunity to kill Mr. Burdick.

Appendix I

Dependent Measures

Circle your answers to the following questions.

1. What character did you represent in this case?

- judge 1
- prosecutor 2
- defense 3
- jury A 4
- jury B 5
- jury C 6
- jury D 7

2. What was the judge's verdict in this case?

- guilty 1
- not guilty 2

3. How satisfied were you with the performance of the judge?

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|-----------|
| not very | | | | | | | | | very |
| satisfied | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | satisfied |

4. How satisfied were you with the person chosen as the judge?

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|-----------|
| not very | | | | | | | | | very |
| satisfied | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | satisfied |

5. How important to you is it that all people be given a chance to play a role they want to play in the court?

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|-----------|
| not | | | | | | | | | quite |
| important | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | | important |

6. How would you describe your overall impression of the judge?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-------------|
| unfair | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | fair |
| unintelligent | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | intelligent |
| sensitive | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | insensitive |

creative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	uncreative
immature	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	mature
competent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	incompetent
not very credible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	credible

7. How much would you like to play the following roles:

the judge?

not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	a great deal
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------

the prosecutor?

not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	a great deal
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------

the defense?

not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	a great deal
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--------------

8. Would you like to change your role in the next case?

yes	1	no	2
-----	---	----	---

9. Would you choose the same person to be the judge in the next case?

yes	1	no	2
-----	---	----	---

10. Do you agree that the person chosen as the judge was the best person for the role?

disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	agree
----------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-------

11. How much influence did you feel the judge had in this situation?

no influence								a great deal
at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	of influence

12. How much influence did you feel you had in this situation?

no influence								a great deal
at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	of influence

13. Who do you feel was the most important member of the court?

judge	1
-------	---

prosecutor	2
------------	---

defense	3
---------	---

jury	4
------	---

14. Did you think that the selection procedure for choosing a person to be the judge was fair?

unfair 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 fair

15. What member of the court would you like to represent in the next case?

judge 1

prosecutor 2

defense 3

jury 4

16. Were you given an opportunity to change to another role in the next case?

yes 1 no 2

17. From your own point of view, did you regard the judge in this courtroom as a legitimate source of authority?

not at all

legitimate 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 legitimate

18. How satisfied were you with the final verdict given by the judge?

not very
satisfied

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 very
satisfied

Appendix J

Table 1

Summary of the Analysis of Variance of the Influence
Jurors Perceived Themselves to Have

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: selection procedure	5.72	2	2.86	1.78
B: qualifications	14.69	1	14.69	9.12*
C: mobility	1.00	1	1.00	-
A x B: sel x qual	2.72	2	1.36	-
A x C: sel x mob	1.67	2	0.58	-
B x C: qual x mob	0.44	1	0.44	-
A x B x C: sel x qual x mob	8.39	2	4.19	2.60
G(ABC): groups within treatments	57.83	36	1.61	-
S(G): subjects within groups	164.67	96	1.72	-

* $p < .01$

Table 2

Summary of the Analysis of Variance of the Confederate as
the Best Choice for the Judge's Role

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: selection procedure	0.10	2	0.05	-
B: qualifications	30.01	1	30.00	20.98*
C: mobility	1.78	1	1.78	1.24
A x B: sel x qual	3.37	2	1.69	1.18
A x C: sel x mob	3.43	2	1.72	1.20
B x C: qual x mob	3.25	1	3.25	2.27
A x B x C: sel x qual x mob	3.37	2	1.69	1.18
G(ABC): groups within treatments	51.33	36	1.43	-
S(G): subjects within groups	141.24	96	1.49	-

* $p < .01$

Table 3

Summary of the Analysis of Variance of the
Importance of Changing Roles Scores

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: selection procedure	2.35	2	1.17	-
B: qualifications	0.25	1	0.25	-
C: mobility	6.25	1	6.25	3.03
A x B: sel x qual	5.38	2	2.69	1.31
A x C: sel x mob	2.04	2	1.02	-
B x C: qual x mob	1.00	1	1.00	-
A x B x C: sel x qual x mob	1.12	2	0.56	-
G(ABC): groups within treatments	74.17	36	2.06	-
S(G): subjects within groups	226.66	96	2.36	-

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, and Test of Significance
Comparing the Fairness of the Selection Procedures

Total Sample N = 24	Election N = 12 $\bar{X} = 5.77$ SD = 1.57	Appointment N = 12 $\bar{X} = 4.94$ SD = 1.71	t 2.65	p .01
Total Sample N = 24	Election N = 12 $\bar{X} = 5.77$ SD = 1.57	Partial Election N = 12 $\bar{X} = 5.46$ SD = 1.61	t 1.00	p n.s.
Total Sample N = 24	Appointment N = 12 $\bar{X} = 4.94$ SD = 1.71	Partial Election N = 12 $\bar{X} = 5.46$ SD = 1.61	t 1.57	p n.s.

Table 5

Selection Procedure x Qualifications Interaction of the
Fairness of the Selection Procedure Scores

Qualifications	Selection Procedure		
	Election	Partial Election	Appointment
HIGH	5.92	5.75	5.54
LOW	5.63	5.17	4.33

Table 6

Summary of the Analysis of Variance of the Perceived
Fairness of the Selection Procedure Scores

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: selection procedure	17.01	2	8.51	5.41**
B: qualifications	17.36	1	17.36	11.03**
C: mobility	2.25	1	2.25	1.43
A x B: sel x qual	14.22	2	7.11	4.52*
A x C: sel x mob	1.04	2	0.52	-
B x C: qual x mob	2.63	1	2.63	1.68
A x B x C: sel x qual x mob	4.85	2	2.48	1.54
G(ABC): groups within treatments	56.67	36	1.57	-
S(G): subjects within groups	150.67	96	1.57	-

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 7

Analysis of Variance for Simple Effects of the
Procedure (P) x Qualifications (Q) Interaction

Simple Effects of Q

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
P for q ₁ (procedure for high qualifications q ₁)	5.09	2	2.55	-
P for q ₂ (procedure for low qualifications q ₂)	61.75	2	30.88	6.01*
groups within cells	215.75	42	5.14	-

Simple Effects of P

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
Q for p ₁ (qualifications for election p ₁)	3.07	1	3.07	-
Q for p ₂ (qualifications for partial election p ₂)	12.25	1	12.50	2.38
Q for p ₃ (qualifications for appointment p ₃)	52.51	1	52.51	10.22
groups within cells	215.75	42	5.14	-

* p < .01

Table 8

Summary of the Analysis of Variance of
the Perceived Legitimacy Scores

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: selection procedure	0.68	2	0.34	-
B: qualifications	21.78	1	21.78	8.89**
C: mobility	7.11	1	7.11	2.90
A x B: sel x qual	4.76	2	2.38	-
A x C: sel x mob	3.76	2	1.88	-
B x C: qual x mob	4.00	1	4.00	1.63
A x B x C: sel x qual x mob	0.79	2	.40	-
G(ABC): groups within treatments	88.33	36	2.45	-
S(G): subjects within groups	166.00	96	1.73	-

** $p < .01$

Table 9

Summary of the Analysis of Variance of the Perceived
Satisfaction with the Judge's Performance Scores

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: selection procedure	7.09	2	3.55	2.34
B: qualifications	75.11	1	75.11	49.41**
C: mobility	11.11	1	11.11	7.31*
A x B: sel x qual	5.26	2	2.63	1.73
A x C: sel x mob	4.60	2	2.30	1.51
B x C: qual x mob	5.44	1	5.44	3.58
A x B x C: sel x qual x mob	2.76	1	2.76	1.82
G(ABC): groups within treatments	54.83	36	1.52	-
S(G): subjects within groups	145.99	96	1.52	-

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 11

Summary of the Analysis of Variance of the Perceived
Attractiveness of the Judge Scores

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: selection procedure	24.76	2	12.38	-
B: qualifications	784.00	1	784.00	47.92**
C: mobility	121.00	1	121.00	7.40**
A x B: sel x qual	11.29	2	5.65	-
A x C: sel x mob	122.79	2	61.40	3.75*
B x C: qual x mob	36.00	1	36.00	2.20
A x B x C: sel x qual x mob	27.54	2	13.77	-
G(ABC): groups within treatments	588.82	36	16.36	-
S(G): subjects within groups	1990.65	96	20.74	-

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 12

Summary of the Analysis of Variance of Jury Members'
Verdicts After the Initial Reading of the Case

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: selection procedure	10.10	2	5.05	-
B: qualifications	6.67	1	6.67	1.32
C: mobility	6.67	1	6.67	1.32
A x B: sel x qual	2.93	2	1.47	-
A x C: sel x mob	7.09	2	3.55	-
B x C: qual x mob	1.17	1	1.17	-
A x B x C: sel x qual x mob	7.76	2	3.89	-
G(ABC): groups within treatments	182.08	36	5.06	-
S(G): subjects within groups	509.98	96	5.31	-

Table 13

Summary of the Analysis of Variance of the
Change in Verdict Scores

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: selection procedure	13.18	2	6.59	1.08
B: qualifications	5.06	1	5.06	-
C: mobility	4.34	1	4.34	-
A x B: sel x qual	4.54	2	2.27	-
A x C: sel x mob	27.18	2	13.59	2.22
B x C: qual x mob	0.17	1	0.17	-
A x B x C: sel x qual x mob	22.26	2	11.13	-
G(ABC): groups within treatments	220.74	36	6.13	-
S(G): subjects within groups	425.98	96	4.44	

Table 14

Summary of the Analysis of Variance of Jurors' Confidence
About the Case After the Initial Presentation

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: selection procedure	21.09	2	10.55	1.98
B: qualifications	4.34	1	4.34	-
C: mobility	0.34	1	0.34	-
A x B: sel x qual	17.09	2	8.55	1.60
A x C: sel x mob	1.68	2	0.84	-
B x C: qual x mob	3.06	1	3.06	-
A x B x C: sel x qual x mob	16.62	2	8.31	1.56
G(ABC): groups within treatments	192.24	36	5.34	-
S(G): subjects within groups	550.64	96	5.74	-

Table 15

Summary of the Analysis of Variance of the
Change in Confidence Scores

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: selection procedure	18.87	2	9.44	1.54
B: qualifications	29.24	1	29.24	4.98*
C: mobility	6.25	1	6.25	1.02
A x B: sel x qual	33.01	2	16.51	2.69
A x C: sel x mob	9.04	2	4.52	-
B x C: qual x mob	8.03	1	8.03	1.31
A x B x C: sel x qual x mob	5.01	2	2.51	-
G(ABC): groups within treatments	211.40	36	5.87	-
S(G): subjects within groups	831.31	96	8.70	-

* $p < .05$

Table 16

Summary of the Analysis of Variance of the Satisfaction
With One's Own Role Scores

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: selection procedure	1.85	2	0.92	-
B: qualifications	28.44	1	28.44	12.00**
C: mobility	12.03	1	12.03	5.07*
A x B: sel x qual	2.76	2	1.38	-
A x C: sel x mob	10.18	2	5.09	2.14
B x C: qual x mob	4.34	1	4.34	1.83
A x B x C: sel x qual x mob	1.85	2	0.92	-
G(ABC): groups within treatments	85.18	36	2.37	-
S(G): subjects within groups	191.32	96	1.99	-

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 17

Summary of the Analyses of Variance of the
Jurors' Satisfaction with the Verdict

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: selection procedure	2.35	2	1.17	-
B: qualifications	5.06	1	5.06	1.50
C: mobility	0.84	1	0.84	-
D: verdict	22.56	1	22.56	6.69*
A x B: sel x qual	88.04	2	4.02	1.19
A x C: sel x mob	7.76	2	3.88	1.15
A x D: sel x verdict	4.87	2	2.44	-
B x C: qual x mob	2.01	1	2.01	-
B x D: qual x verdict	0.17	1	0.17	-
C x D: mob x verdict	0.01	1	0.01	-
A x B x C: sel x qual x mob	5.01	2	2.51	-
A x B x D: sel x qual x verdict	12.85	2	6.42	1.91
A x C x D: sel x mob x verdict	2.35	2	1.17	-
B x C x D: qual x mob x verdict	0.34	1	0.34	-
A x B x C x D: sel x qual x mob x verdict	8.43	2	4.22	1.25
G(ABC): groups within treatments	80.80	24	3.37	-
S(G): subjects within groups	247.32	96	2.58	-

* $p < .05$

Table 18

Summary of the Analyses of Variance of Voters and Nonvoters

A. Attractiveness of the Judge

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: qualifications	197.51	1	197.51	8.98**
B: mobility	9.57	1	9.57	-
C: voting	96.32	1	96.32	4.38*
A x B: qual x mob	37.19	1	37.19	1.69
A x C: qual x vote	4.88	1	4.88	-
B x C: mob x vote	39.38	1	39.38	1.79
A x B x C: qual x mob x vote	0.38	1	0.38	-
error: CMS groups (ABC)	703.65	24	21.99	-
S(G): <u>Ss</u> within groups	293.00	16	18.31	-

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

B. Satisfaction with the Judge

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: qualifications	10.70	1	10.70	4.46*
B: mobility	0.95	1	0.95	-
C: voting	1.32	1	1.32	-
A x B: qual x mob	2.26	1	2.26	-
A x C: qual x vote	0.38	1	0.38	-
B x C: mob x vote	0.63	1	0.63	-
A x B x C: qual x mob x vote	2.82	1	2.82	1.18
error: CMS groups (ABC)	76.84	24	2.40	-
S(G): <u>Ss</u> within groups	35.50	16	2.22	-

* $p < .05$

C. Satisfaction with One's Own Role

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: qualifications	7.51	1	7.51	6.31*
B: mobility	0.94	1	0.94	-
C: voting	2.26	1	2.26	1.90
A x B: qual x mob	0.38	1	0.38	-
A x C: qual x vote	2.26	1	2.26	1.90
B x C: mob x vote	4.88	1	4.88	4.10
A x B x C: qual x mob x vote	2.82	1	2.82	2.37
error: cMS groups (ABC)	38.01	24	1.19	-
S(G): Ss within groups	12.50	16	0.78	-

* p < .05

D. Perceived Influence

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: qualifications	16.17	1	16.17	10.30**
B: mobility	3.09	1	3.09	1.97
C: voting	3.09	1	3.09	1.97
A x B: qual x mob	9.09	1	9.09	5.79*
A x C: qual x vote	0.25	1	0.25	-
B x C: mob x vote	0.06	1	0.06	-
A x B x C: qual x mob x vote	2.27	1	2.27	1.45
error: cMS groups (ABC)	50.32	24	1.57	-
S(G): Ss within groups	31.00	16	1.94	-

* p < .05

** p < .01

E. Importance of Changing Roles

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: qualifications	0.50	1	0.50	-
B: mobility	5.28	1	5.28	2.53
C: voting	1.53	1	1.53	-
A x B: qual x mob	2.00	1	2.00	-
A x C: qual x vote	3.12	1	3.12	1.49
B x C: mob x vote	0.78	1	0.78	-
A x B x C: qual x mob x vote	1.13	1	1.13	-
error: cMS groups (ABC)	66.72	24	2.09	-
S(G): <u>Ss</u> within groups	10.00	16	0.63	-

F. Change in Verdict

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: qualifications	0.19	1	0.19	-
B: mobility	0.94	1	0.94	-
C: voting	21.95	1	21.95	5.20*
A x B: qual x mob	2.26	1	2.26	-
A x C: qual x vote	1.76	1	1.76	-
B x C: mob x vote	0.38	1	0.38	-
A x B x C: qual x mob x vote	0.95	1	0.95	-
error: cMS groups (ABC)	135.02	24	4.22	-
S(G): <u>Ss</u> within groups	28.00	16	1.75	-

* $p < .05$

G. Change in Confidence About the Verdict

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
A: qualifications	22.13	1	22.13	3.33
B: mobility	2.00	1	2.00	-
C: voting	8.00	1	8.00	1.20
A x B: qual x mob	3.78	1	3.78	-
A x C: qual x vote	0.03	1	0.03	-
B x C: mob x vote	2.53	1	2.53	-
A x B x C: qual x mob x vote	6.13	1	6.13	-
error: cMS groups (ABC)	212.53	24	6.64	-
S(G): <u>Ss</u> within groups	141.50	16	8.84	-

Table 19

Correlation Matrix

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.	1.00	.30	.28	.02	.28	.30	.09	.37	.02	0.21
2.	0.30**	1.00	.18	.44	.36	.07	.21	.71	.15	0.14
3.	0.29**	0.18	1.00	.25	.12	.26	.05	.25	.18	0.02
4.	-0.02	-0.44**	0.25*	1.00	-.23	-.10	-.23	-.39	-.16	0.07
5.	0.28**	0.36**	-0.12	0.23*	1.00	.21	.11	.37	.06	0.14
6.	0.30**	0.07	-0.25*	0.10	0.21	1.00	-.06	.08	.11	0.08
7.	0.09	0.21	-0.05	0.23*	0.11	-0.06	1.00	.36	.14	0.10
8.	0.37**	0.71**	-0.25*	0.39**	0.37**	0.08	0.36**	1.00	.33	0.12
9.	0.02	0.15	-0.17	0.16	0.06	0.11	0.14	0.33**	1.00	0.08
10.	0.26*	0.14	0.02	0.07	0.13	0.08	0.10	0.12	0.08	1.00

- 1 = satisfaction with one's own role
- 2 = satisfaction with the judge's performance
- 3 = desire to change roles
- 4 = choose the same person as the judge
- 5 = judge as a legitimate source of authority
- 6 = perceived influence of one's own role
- 7 = fairness of the selection procedure
- 8 = the attractiveness of the judge
- 9 = change in verdict
- 10 = change in confidence about the verdict

* p < .01

** p < .001

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